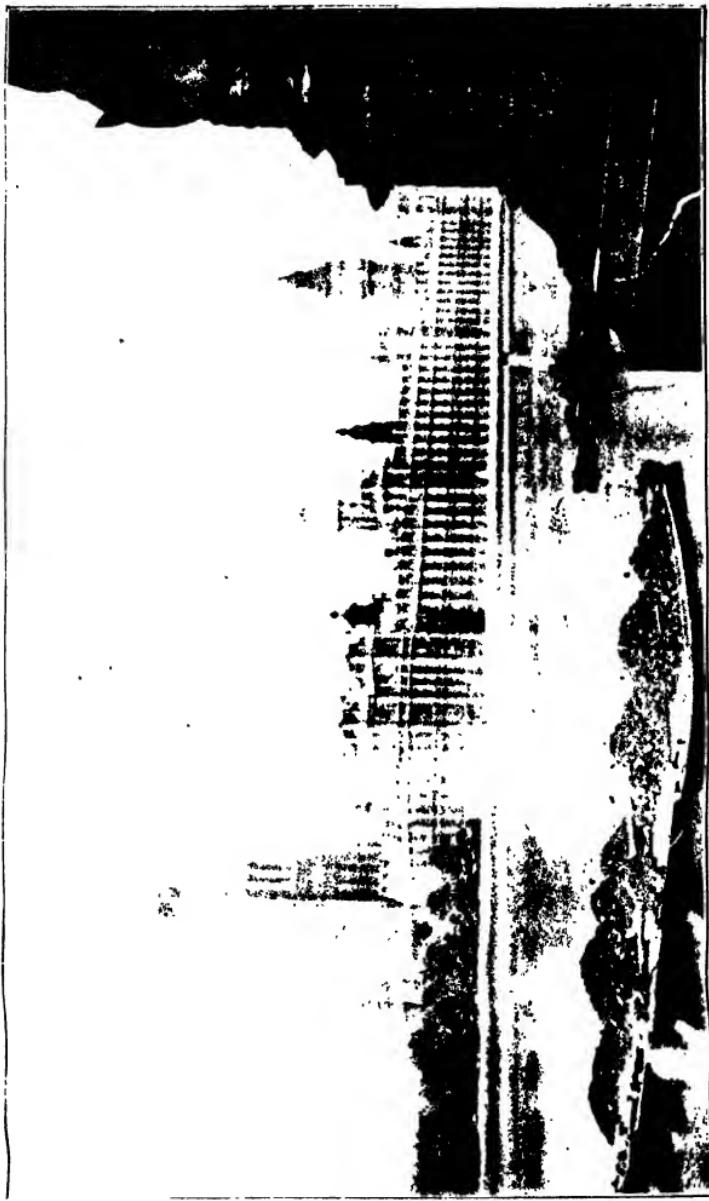


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THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.



CHILDREN OF THE EMPIRE

BY

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AND

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THE writing of this book was first suggested to us by a debate in the House of Lords (November 23rd, 1915) on the teaching of patriotism. Lord Sydenham then said that no nobler monument could be raised to the gallant men who have fallen in this war, than by teaching the youth of all classes certain moral lessons which can be taught only in connection with the history and ideals of their own nation, and especially from the stirring events of the present Great War. This is precisely the teaching which we have tried to give in this book.

Lord Sydenham, having read an advance copy, has kindly expressed the view that "a little book of this kind can do great good at the present moment, as it is most important that some knowledge of our Empire and some idea of the responsibilities it entails and the sympathies it claims should be instilled into children at school age. It is further most necessary that they should form clear notions of all that we owe to our gallant Allies and of the sacrifices they are making in the greatest of all causes."

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CHILDREN OF THE EMPIRE

CHAPTER I OUR COUNTRY

IF you, like Robinson Crusoe, were wrecked on a desert island, you would have to start everything afresh for yourself. All you needed would have to be gained by your own skill and strength. There would be no one to teach you or work with you. No one would correct your false ideas, or guide your hands, so as to lessen your toil. The past efforts of the world, except so far as they were stored in your mind, or embodied in the tools you had saved from the wreck, would be lost for you. Even if you were very clever, your cleverness would largely be useless ; your time would be spent in the struggle to satisfy your own immediate needs. Still more would any feeling you had for your fellow creatures be wasted. The tongue in your head would be useless except to talk to yourself.

But you do not live in that solitary manner. You are a member of a family, and that family is part of a nation. We are proud of belonging to the British nation. All the people who live in our land are united by their history, language, religion, customs and institutions. For this reason, they come to love their country, and loving it, they wish to work for it, to defend its liberties and protect its honour.

This love and service of your country is patriotism. Patriotism is a sense of our responsibility for our country ; each citizen of a country has to take his share in the work. Every child should be a patriot.

Patriotism demands that each citizen play his part in the country and the Empire. You boys and girls will one day have to decide what you are going to do for your country. Some of you boys who are adventurous will like to see life, and to work in some distant or savage part of the mighty Empire. Those of you who are studious may increase the knowledge of your country, or add to our powers over the forces of nature. Other boys and girls, when they are older, will work in

different ways. There must be a chance for every one, and everyone of you must be ready to use your chance when it comes to you.

Patriotism demands that we should display the good qualities of which our fathers gave us examples. We must hate oppression as they did, and resist the tyranny of foreign conquerors or of any of our fellow countrymen who would use their powers selfishly for their own advantages. The good sense and moderation usually shown by great Englishmen are also worthy of our imitation.

Serving a country is like serving a friend. You must see that the cause for which you serve your friend is a right one. He who is willing to do anything, however mean, to serve any purpose, however vile, which a friend or our country asks of us, is no true man. The really loyal man will hate to see his country in the wrong : it will be its good qualities which he will wish to preserve, in order that it may use its great powers for some great end.

Some Germans have said that there is nothing above the State, and therefore whatever the State commands is right. This is not true. The Britons love their

country, but at the same time they have always been quick to criticise those who claimed to speak for them or to govern them.

To serve your country wisely you have first to learn what to do and then how to do it. God has chosen every nation to carry out part of His work. He has given to each its special duty, so that it may show in the history of the world some of His attributes. Looking back on past history, every one can see this : thus Rome stands for order and law, Greece for beauty, the Jews for religion and morals.

What does England stand for ?

Freedom—to all English men and women, and boys and girls, that word is dear. It is hallowed by a thousand years of heroism, suffering and achievement. It stands for the greatness of our motherland, and the meaning of our history.

We are proud of this freedom, which has been won in the past by many heroes, who have lived and worked and died for England. Attacks on freedom will be made from time to time by foreign foes and native tyrants. Freedom has always to be won anew and it is our work to maintain the liberties which we have inherited.

It is Freedom for which the very name of England is to stand.

CHAPTER II

How ENGLISH LIBERTY GREW

ANY patriot would wish to know something of the history of his country. History becomes something more than a dull lesson when you remember that it tells of the events that happened in our own land.

Let us learn a few facts about our country's past.

The people of Great Britain are shut off from the continent of Europe by the sea. It is this fact that made it less difficult for the Scotch, Welsh, and English to unite. The Irish, on their separate island, have never been so closely bound to England. All these peoples are united by much in their past history and traditions. They are all freedom-loving peoples, whose countries enjoyed the benefit of settled government while the continental countries were still unsettled. The King of England really ruled at a time when the King of France had no power, and the

Dukes of Burgundy and Normandy disregarded his rule and the law of the realm.

One benefit of this order and settled government in England has been the steady improvement of our political institutions.

We will give you an instance of the early power exercised by the English King. Henry II. (he came to the throne in 1154), was so strong that he was able to take all real power from the courts of justice, controlled by the barons : the King's sheriff was to carry out the law everywhere. The sheriffs, or royal shire-reeves, were officers "despatched to levy the royal revenues and to administer the royal justice."

Henry II. in this way lessened the powers which were exercised in courts of the Lords of the Manor. More and more the nobility became servants of the King.

The English Kings were themselves bound by law in early times. The great proof of this is the Magna Charta which King John was forced to sign in the year 1215. Not far from London, close to the old town of Staines, on the banks of the Thames, there is a green meadow-land which bears the name of Runnymede. To this meadow came a cavalcade of barons ; from Windsor

Castle, the King and his followers rode to meet them. Here, with a faint show of resistance, John signed the famous parchment. Then he rode back to his castle, where he flung himself down in royal rage, and bit pieces of stick to powder with his grinding teeth, cursing the Charter.

King John knew what he was giving up for all his heirs for ever. This Charter has always been rightly regarded as a proof of the skill of the English in guarding the liberty of every subject. We should not read into it more than it originally meant. The barons who forced the King to sign it did not intend to protect serfs and slaves. But the Magna Charta did proclaim certain liberties as the rights of every man. The King was forbidden to exact higher rents than earlier Kings had done. More important was the provision that the King should not punish men unless they were judged to be in the wrong by their peers (or equals). The rule of justice was here clearly established in place of the rule of power. Even villeins received some protection. The villeins were the cultivators of the soil, who were bound to the property that belonged to their lord,

and had to give him labour on his land for a fixed number of days in the year, while on other days they improved their own lands.

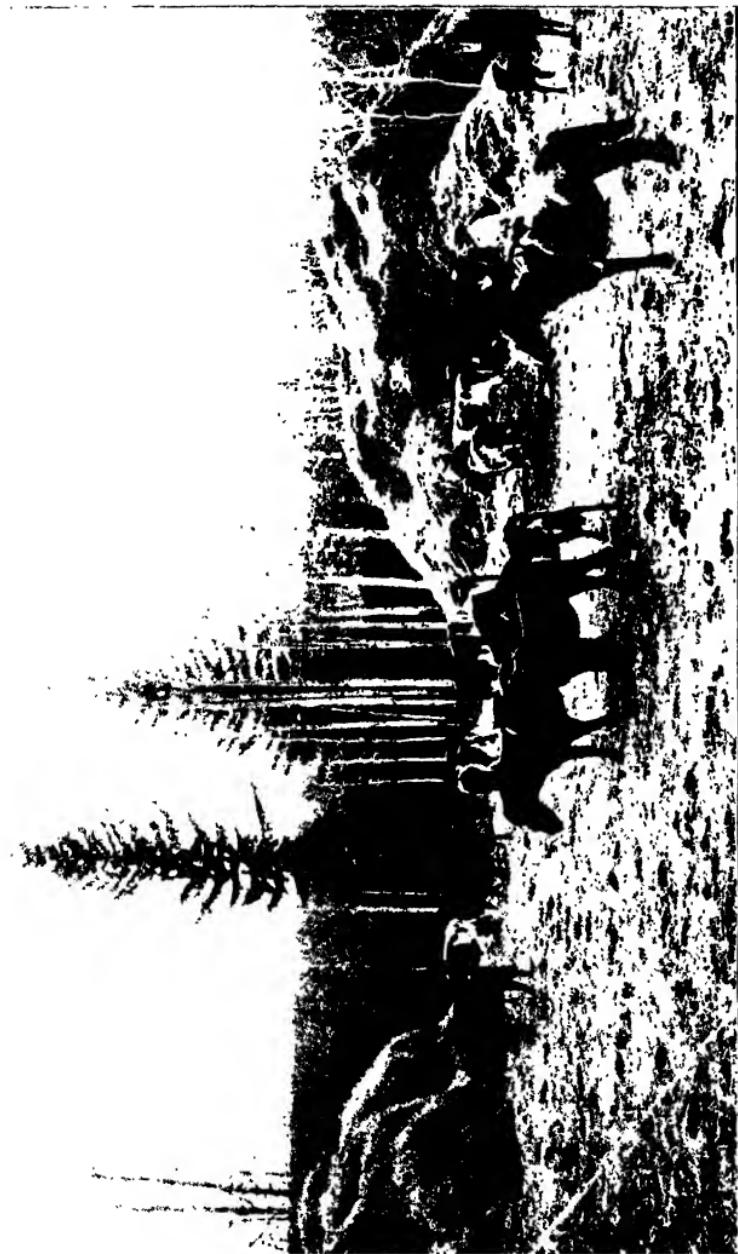
Kipling, whose "Jungle Book" you have probably read, calls Magna Charta "the first attack on Right Divine."

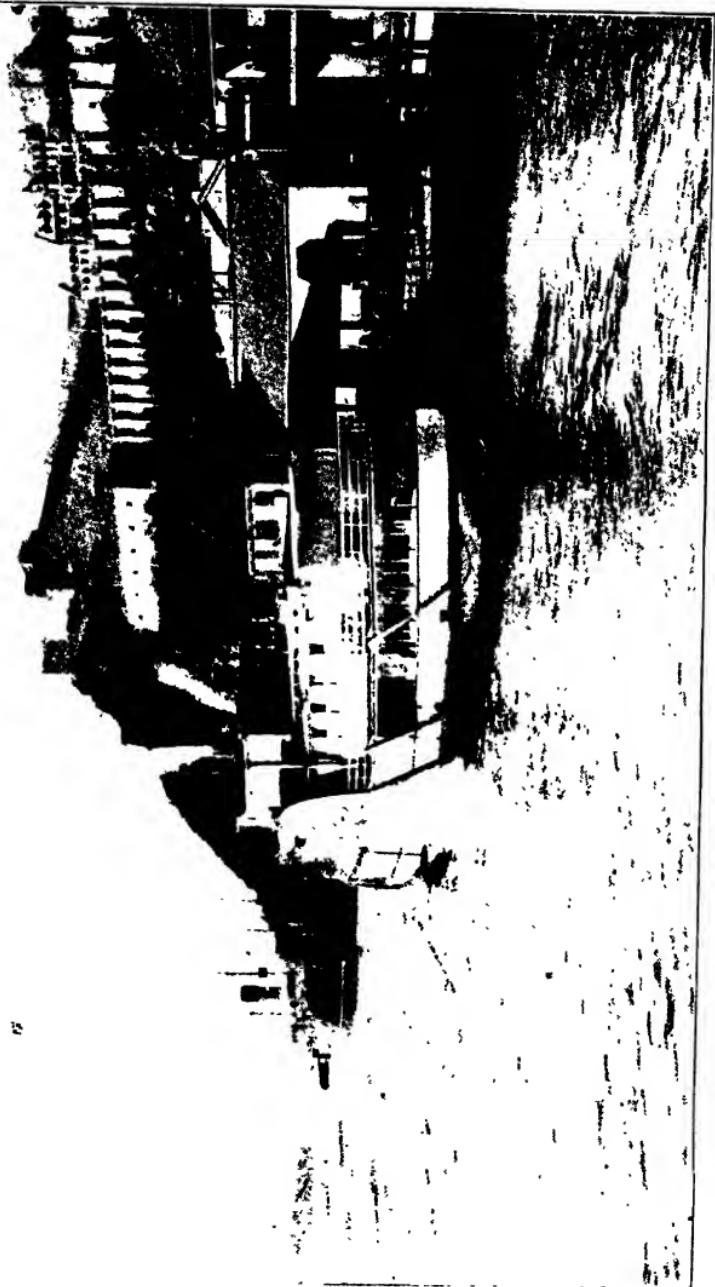
What does he mean?

King Charles I. (1625–1649), who believed in what is called the Doctrine of the Divine Right of Kings, maintained that Kings were appointed by Heaven, and could not be made to answer for their actions to their subjects. He did not even allow free speech in Parliament. He wished to raise money from his subjects, both for his own use and for the public services, without asking Parliament. What a contrast Charles I. forms with the Kings of England of to-day, who, it is often said, reign, but do not rule.

Those who opposed Charles and the other Stuart Kings (as the members of his house are called), are known as Parliamentarians. You will soon see the reason of this name. The Parliamentarians said no King must tax the people, until the people had sent to Parliament men who, in their name agreed to the taxation.

A FARM IN A CANADIAN FOREST.





This is called taxation with the consent of the people.

Now you begin to see what is meant by saying that England is a self-governing country.

Although the Stuarts lived nearly three centuries ago (that is, three hundred years), some of the countries of Europe are still not fully self-governing in this sense. The monarchs can appoint ministers, who can pass acts imposing taxation, even though the people do not wish for the taxation, and though their members of parliament have so declared. This can be done in Germany.

The document which established this right for England, against the opposition of Charles I., is called the Petition of Rights. The King was forced to sign it by the Parliamentarians.

In order to gain this right for the people, the Parliamentarians had to fight what is known as the Civil War. You have probably heard of Oliver Cromwell. He was the leader of the Parliamentarians, and from 1654 to 1658, while there was no King, he was called the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England.

So you see that liberties, that seem to

us quite natural and commonplace, were matters of life and death to our fathers. We, for this reason, must guard these liberties as a sacred trust. We have to do more than this. We have to add to the liberties and well-being of our country. This will be the work of you boys and girls now growing up. Your eyes, unlike ours, have not grown used to evils that might be prevented. In every age, evil men, unfortunately, will oppress. To stand up against them for truth and liberty is the work of a true patriot.

CHAPTER III

How ENGLISH LIBERTY GREW (*continued*)

IT would take too long for us to tell you how all our liberties were gained. We have told you of the Magna Carta or Great Charter, and shown you how it ordered that no man should be punished until he had been judged guilty by his equals.

Step by step, other great safeguards were gained. The "Habeas Corpus" Act, passed in 1679 in the reign of Charles II., did more than the Charter to prevent men

and women from being imprisoned without an open trial.

Rights that to-day seem quite natural have been won by the efforts, skill and sacrifices of our fathers. Thus the right to combine was not won until 1800. That is to say, before that time, labourers could not unite in trade unions to protect their interests.

The right to a free press and to free speech were likewise won only by long-continued efforts. The press was once censored always, as with us it has been during the Great War. Only, in the war time the censorship is intended to prevent our plans from becoming known to the enemy. But earlier censorships were to shield those in power from the criticism of the people. Our great poet, Milton, wrote a book, "Areopagitica," pleading for free speech. We read how Samuel Johnson, wishing people to know what was said in the House of Commons, had to make up imaginary characters, into whose mouths he placed something like the speeches of the real statesmen. In 1771 the House of Commons issued a proclamation actually forbidding all reports of their debates.

They imprisoned six printers who had paid no attention to their proclamation. They even put the Lord Mayor of London in the Tower for maintaining they had gone beyond their powers. But this was the last attempt to stop publication of debates in the House of Commons.

Having gained a free press, we ought to use our privileges. We ought to be careful to study what is being done in Parliament. We ought to think whether we approve or disapprove of the decisions that are made there. We ought to read the speeches of our representatives in Parliament in the newspapers. We are responsible for their actions. Every Parliament is influenced by public opinion. By "public opinion" we mean what people are thinking and saying.

The "freedom of conscience" that we enjoy and feel proud of in England is the result of another long struggle. It seems to us quite right that no man or woman should suffer before the law because of any religious belief. But once the Church favoured by the State had great advantages. Men who were Dissenters or Roman Catholics were excluded from many offices

and honours. We are fortunate in enjoying rights which had to be gained by the courage of men and women fighting against injustice and intolerance.

Here is a story that gives you an idea of how these liberties were won.

In the time of King Charles I., a prayer-book was drawn up for use in Scotland. On a certain Sunday in 1637 it was ordered that in every church this book should be used. But in the principal church of Edinburgh, St Giles, as soon as the deacon in his white surplice opened the hated book, a shout arose. A cabbage-woman named Jenny Geddes, seeing the clergyman would not stop, threw a folding-stool at him. She did not aim well and he was not hit. The disturbers were turned out of the church. But after this, all Edinburgh and all Scotland took up their cause, and the use of the new prayer-book was discontinued.

These stories show that a single man or woman may, by being firm in opposing what they believe to be wrong, do great service and guard liberties that are to belong to the whole nation. Right doing in the upholding of justice must be not only in the councils of nations and in State

affairs, but in the daily lives of all men and women, and all boys and girls.

CHAPTER IV

GREAT ENGLISHMEN

WE have many reasons to be proud of England. England has given to the world an almost countless number of great men. You boys and girls are interested in many subjects. Whatever is the subject in which you are interested, you will find that great Englishmen have contributed something of value to its history. Whatever the part of Great Britain in which you live, you may learn that some famous Englishman has lived near to you, and made the place holy ground.

The greatest of Englishmen was the Elizabethan dramatist, William Shakespeare. He was born and died at a small place in Warwickshire, Stratford-on-Avon. Shakespeare holds the fame of England high in foreign lands. He was a patriot. We may see this from the speeches of some of his characters. All his historical plays show how greatly he loved his own land.

But his interests were not confined to England. He placed the action of his plays in Denmark, Italy, or Venice, and he borrowed his stories from many lands. Yet he always shows his faith in his own country. He understood what we all feel to-day, that England is safe from invasion so long as she holds the seas ; the Queen in "Cymbeline" speaks of

"The natural bravery of your isle, which stands
As Neptune's park, ribbed and paled in
With rocks unscalable and roaring waters."

(By "natural bravery," Shakespeare means the natural state of defiance that braves dangers.)

Shakespeare does not stand alone. The writers of no other country show such a variety of powers as the writers of England. By this we mean that in every branch of writing some Englishman is in the front rank. We are proud of England for her poets. Milton, Wordsworth, Shelley, Byron, Burns, are some of the greatest names.

In the novel, Defoe, Fielding, Scott, Dickens and Thackeray were leaders who influenced the great writers of France and Russia. These English novelists are specially noteworthy for the variety of their

strongly - marked characters. The characters created by Dickens, for instance—Mrs. Gamp, Mr. Pecksniff, Oliver Twist, Bumble, Stiggins, and many others—live in our conversations and our newspapers as if they were real people. We use them to show what we think of those around us. For example, if we want to speak of an eloquent hypocrite, that is, someone who shams being good by grand talking about goodness, we refer to him as a “Pecksniff.”

In painting, it was English artists who led one of the modern movements. The mists of our damp climate and our quickly moving skies showed our painters effects which are very rare in brighter lands, where everything in the landscape appears equally clear. Turner and Constable were pioneers in landscape painting.

Should you be interested in mechanical things, the names of James Watt and George Stephenson will be familiar to you. Watt so improved the steam engine that it became possible to use it in far more ways, and with much less coal, than had previously been the case. Watt had bad health all his life long, and, though energetic in inventing and studying, he disliked busi-

ness and looking after his own interests. He cared so much for his work that when he was young he learnt German and Italian, on purpose to read books on machines written in those languages.

Further discoveries in the use of steam were made by George Stephenson. He was born near Newcastle. He was a poor boy, and he learnt to read and write only when he was eighteen, in a night-school. This was in the year 1799, long before boys and girls were compelled to go to school by law. Stephenson's name is for ever connected with the steam locomotive. He was the first inventor who succeeded in making a steam engine which was of any real use for the purpose of pulling carriages.

Another celebrated Englishman, who lived half a century earlier than Stephenson, was Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1725). He made discoveries connected with the force of gravity. As he was sitting alone in a garden, he was thinking deeply of the power which makes an apple fall to the ground. He came to the conclusion it must be the same force which causes the moon to go round the earth. This force, he thought, must be felt far farther away

than had been usually believed. "Why not as high as the moon?" said he to himself. "And if so, the moon's motion must be influenced by it: perhaps she is retained in her orbit thereby." For twenty years he studied, and he found how great the force of gravity must be at any distance from the earth.

We should have respect for all our great men. They show us what Englishmen can do. They do more than this. They inspire within us a spirit to strive to work our best. They must live not only in our memories, but in the excellence of our work. We, who are of their blood, must so live that we may be worthy of the land to which they belonged.

CHAPTER V

PATRIOTISM SHOWN IN DIFFERENT WAYS
WE need not limit our service to our country to any one kind of deed; different men and women can show their devotion in different ways. In this chapter we shall tell you by means of examples how very varied the opportunities for serving our country are. Some of the stories will be about

fighters, like Blake and Hawke ; one will tell of a woman, Elizabeth Fry, who visited the unfortunate prisoners and made their position for ever less terrible.

Blake, born in 1599, was one of the great patriots of the seventeenth century. "Sea-king Blake" he was called, "for he was a king of men." And yet, to look at, he was a short, squat, ungainly man. His father was a merchant at Bridgwater, and he was brought up to the same business. In all that he did he was strictly honest, brave and true. His was patriotism of the best kind. He fought for his country, and felt that his country fought for the right. His guns helped to stop the shedding of innocent blood in Piedmont, an event on which Milton wrote one of his finest sonnets.

Blake was middle-aged when he was summoned to serve the Parliament in the Civil War. We read of his gallant conduct in defence of the fort of Lyme. He was in command at Taunton and resisted three sieges. "Resolved," as he said, "to the last drop of our blood, to maintain the quarrel we have undertaken, and doubting not but that the same God who hath hitherto protected us will ere long bless

us with an issue answerable to the justice of our cause."

An amusing story is told of an incident which took place during this siege. The citizens in Taunton were reduced to one pig, the only edible animal left in the city. With undaunted spirit, Blake misled the enemy as to their condition. He ordered this one and last pig to be led through the city, and at different places the poor animal was whipped. Its squealings deceived the besiegers, who thereupon imagined that food was plentiful, as there were pigs in every quarter of the city.

A hundred years later Edward Hawke was born, a sailor so eminent as to be called the father of the Royal Navy. He entered the navy when he was only thirteen. It is Hawke's abiding glory that his courtesy was as unfailing as his courage. He raised the whole character of the King's navy, and got rid absolutely of all incompetent and brutal officers. It was in Hawke's time that a definite uniform was first adopted in the navy. The pattern of the cloth was suggested by certain of the officers, but the blue and white colours were chosen by King George II., it is said in compliment to the

Duchess of Bedford, the wife of the First Lord of the Admiralty at the time.

Hawke's great victory was the battle of Quiberon Bay, November 20th, 1759, fought during the Seven Years' War, which decided whether France or England should own the American colonies.

His ship, the *Royal George*, continued advancing towards the enemy, and Hawke gave orders to his master mariner to carry him close alongside the ship, the *Soleil Royal*, commanded by the French admiral, M. Conflans. The mariner demurred. He believed that to do this would wreck the *Royal George* upon a shoal of sand. He continued to urge Hawke not to take this course. But the admiral interrupted him with impatience. "You have done your duty, sir, in showing me the danger. You have now at once to obey my order and lay me alongside the *Soleil Royal*."

A very different kind of patriotism was shown by Mrs. Elizabeth Fry, a great woman who lived and worked for England in the early nineteenth century. In addition to her public work, she brought up a large family. She was not like Dickens's character, Mrs. Jellyby, in "Bleak House," who

was always making pocket-handkerchiefs for the natives of Barrioboola-Gha and neglected her own children. The terrible condition of the prisoners in the prisons of her day moved the tender mother-heart of Mrs. Fry. The innocent and the guilty were herded together. The condition of the prisoners was very bad. This saintly lady supplied the destitute prisoners with clothes, established a school for the children, and spent much time in speaking and reading to the prisoners. She had a very beautiful voice, and the prisoners liked to hear her speak. She died in 1845, but the work she had done did not die. Other people have thought of the prisoners and worked to make their condition less hard. But even to-day there is much still to be done. In particular, the sentences of solitary confinement ought to be ended. Our aim ought to be to reform those who have done wrong and not merely to punish them.

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CHAPTER VI

HOME GOVERNMENT

IF you want to be a good citizen, one of the first and most necessary things is to

learn about the government of your own country. You may have thought that it was only the politicians, the men specially occupied with affairs of State, who make the laws to govern England. But this is not so.

England is a self-governing country. This means that new laws are passed, or old laws repealed or altered, not by a few persons, but with the consent of the whole of the people.

In what way do the people show that they consent?

The people themselves elect or choose those whom they like to represent them. It is as though each class in a school elected one of its members to act as prefect of the class, and then all these prefects met together and made the rules for the school.

The members of Parliament chosen by the electors of England may not represent them for longer than five years. These elected members form the House of Commons. It consists of 670 members of Parliament.

You may like to know that the word "parliament" comes from the French "parler," to speak. It was first introduced into English in Henry III.'s reign in 1246.

The House of Commons does not "legislate," that is, make laws, by itself. The King, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons all take part in the making of a law. A Bill may be discussed first by either the House of Commons or the House of Lords. After a Bill has been passed by one House, it is sent to the other House ; then, when both Houses of Parliament have agreed to the Bill, the King signs it. It is then called an Act of Parliament and is one of the laws of the land.

The King's real power to make and unmake laws has now been lost, because for many years he has not exercised it. He cannot refuse to add his signature to Bills which have passed the two Houses of Parliament.

Nor has the House of Lords the same power as the House of Commons. It cannot alter one very important class of Bills. Only the House of Commons can vote the money needed for national purposes, and the House of Lords may not alter these Bills. By the Parliament Act, passed in the year 1911, it was decided that the House of Lords cannot reject a Bill more than twice, if the Bill has been



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A Major Error



A NEW ZEALAND GHOST.



Egypt, The Pyramids.



properly passed on each occasion by a majority in the House of Commons. The third time it is sent up to the House of Lords it becomes law, even if the Lords refuse to agree to it.

The House of Lords contains about 640 members. They are divided into Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual. The Lords Temporal consist of men who by birth inherit certain titles ; they are Dukes, Earls, Marquises and so on. The Lords Spiritual are the Bishops and the two Archbishops.

The Lord Chancellor presides over the sittings of the House of Lords. He sits on the "woolsack." This is a sack of wool covered with red cloth. It is believed to have been placed in the House of Lords in the reign of Edward III., to remind the peers how important the wool trade then was to England. At that time, the export of wool was England's greatest source of wealth. England was then an agricultural country, and the greater part of the people lived on the land, cultivating it and rearing sheep. To-day our country is one of the greatest of manufacturing countries, in which a large part of the people live in the towns.

CHAPTER VII

HOME GOVERNMENT (*continued*)

Boys and girls who live in London will have seen the Houses of Parliament at Westminster. They are fine modern buildings, grouped round the old Westminster Hall, and built in the same style as that building. The name given to this style of architecture is Gothic.

Inside these beautiful buildings the debates between the members of Parliament take place. To ensure that the debates may be carried on in an orderly manner, the House of Commons elects a chairman. This chairman is called the Speaker. It is his work to keep order, and he calls on different members to speak, so that there may be a fair hearing for all kinds of opinions. Sometimes he cannot prevent trouble, as the members will not follow the rules of the House. He can then punish them if the House wishes him to do so. He can either expel or suspend the offenders, that means prevent them from coming for a time to the House, or even

have them imprisoned in the clock-tower. This does not often happen.

No large number of persons can do work in a sitting of all its members. It has to appoint some smaller number of men to prepare its work. In the House of Commons, this small committee is called the Cabinet.

The Cabinet decides which are the important measures which any Parliament is to deal with. Bills that are not supported by the Cabinet are called private members' Bills.

The Cabinet is made up of the holders of the most important offices of State; the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and the Home Secretary are sure to be among them.

The Cabinet is not directly elected by the House of Commons. Its members are selected by one man, the Prime Minister. Yet the Prime Minister has no free choice. The Cabinet must be of the same opinion as the majority of the House of Commons, for it can only continue in existence so long as it has their support on all important matters. Thus the Cabinet is not able to follow its own will, but is dependent on the

people of England, who elect the members of Parliament.

When the Prime Minister has chosen his Cabinet, it must be prepared always to speak with one voice. Each of its members should behave as if every important public speech of his fellows came from his own mouth.

The Prime Minister is appointed by the King. But the King has no free choice. The Prime Minister must be accepted as their leader by that party in the House of Commons which has most members. The two chief parties are the Conservatives and the Liberals. If the King were able to select any man as Prime Minister whom he liked, without regard to the majority in the House of Commons, there would be no self-government in England. This freedom of choice, as to who shall be his Minister is actually given to the German Kaiser.

When the Speaker wishes to take a vote on any question, he states the matter to the House, and those in favour of it say "aye," while those who are against it say "no." The Speaker then declares, according to his opinion, "I think the *ayes* have it," or "I think the *noes* have it." His

judgment is in most cases disputed by some members of the House, who cry out in opposition to him, "I think the *noes* have it," or "I think the *ayes* have it," saying just the opposite of what he had said. The Speaker then directs strangers to withdraw, or leave the parts of the House reserved for members. The doors are locked and the division bells rung to summon members who are in the building, but not in the room where sittings take place. The Speaker now repeats his question and the vote is again taken by word of mouth. This is usually again questioned, and now the members vote by walking into two rooms called the lobbies of the House. This is called taking a division of the House. The members who vote for the proposal go into one lobby, those who vote against into the other.

This gives you a little idea of how members of Parliament do their work, keeping to the old methods that have been handed down from past generations.

CHAPTER VIII

HOME GOVERNMENT : LOCAL MATTERS

ALL the public business of Great Britain is not done by the Parliament at Westminster. Parliament entrusts certain work to be carried out by men who are elected, or voted for, by the people living in certain districts or towns. In this way, the schools of London are in the charge of the London County Council, while the education of Liverpool is cared for by the Liverpool Borough Council. This arrangement is a good one because it gives all the people more control over their own affairs.

Such a system of local control is called "Local Government." Public health and education are two important matters controlled by the local government bodies.

All of you boys and girls think it a disgrace if you cannot read. But it is not very long ago when even men and women never learnt to read or write their name. There was no compulsory education : that is, boys and girls were not ordered by law to go to school. In 1843 one-third of the

men and half of the women were not able to sign their names, and had to make a mark in the marriage registers. Sometimes you do not want to come to school. But you do not think, because you do not know, how much worse things were for children before the law interfered and said what they must do.

The first statesman to act for children was Sir Robert Peel. He owned a cotton mill, in which quite small children worked. This made him think. In 1802 he passed the first Act interfering with factory work. It was called "The Health and Morals of Apprentices Act." It said that apprentices were to be taught reading, writing and arithmetic, and factories whitewashed twice a year.

Many years passed, and still young children had to work. It took twenty-five years to get laws passed to restrict a child of nine years to a sixty-four-hour week, and that only in cotton mills. You work a twenty-five-hour week at school. Think of children of only nine having to work hard in a mill for more than double this time.

One of the employments in which children were put to tasks beyond their strength

was mining. Children as young as six or seven years worked for eleven or twelve hours underground. They started work with the men at four in the morning. The galleries of the coal-pit were secured by traps or doors to prevent inflammable draughts. The child of six years was made to open and shut one of these doors to let the trucks pass and repass. The little child had to sit by itself in a dark gallery for all the long twelve hours of the miners' day. In 1842 Parliament found out how bad these conditions were and passed an Act which forbade girls to work underground in the mines or any boys under ten years of age.

These facts will give you an idea of what the law has done to safeguard children.

But, though so much has been done to make things better, there are still great evils that need to be done away with. Both in the town and in the country children, as well as going to school, have to do work for wages. This plan is not good for any child, for no one can learn lessons when they are tired with work. Some children have to work before, between, or after school hours, without being let off

any of their school work. These children deliver milk or newspapers or help in shops. In the country, they milk cows, fetch water, clean pigsties, pick potatoes, weed gardens, or do other jobs to help the farmer. Children are nearly always willing workers. But all work and no play makes Tom a dull boy, and teachers like bright boys.

In some places where there are factories, children as young as twelve years of age are allowed to work half the day in the factory and half at school. These children are called "half-timers." One week they go to the factory at six and work till noon, the next week they go to school in the morning and work in the factory in the afternoon.

This plan does not allow the poor boy or girl to learn as much as the rich boy or girl who have no work to do except their school lessons. All you children ought to have an equal chance. It is the duty of your country to give you this chance. It is your duty to use your advantages by learning your lessons to the very best of your powers. In this way you are already preparing yourselves to pay back to your country what it has done for you.

CHAPTER IX

IMPERIALISM

WE must not think of England as always having been what it is to-day. In the Middle Ages it was a backward, agricultural country. The Mediterranean was at that time the sea on which most ships sailed, taking the commerce of the civilised world of Europe from port to port. Venice was then the mistress of the seas.

Our earliest foreign export, that is, the chief commodity we sold to foreign nations, was wool, because we were then an agricultural and sheep-breeding country. The Italians were for a long time the traders and bankers of the world. Even to-day the street in which the largest banks in London are situated is called Lombard Street, after the merchants who came from Lombardy, a province of Italy.

We were not a great nation of carriers by sea till far later. Holland occupied our present position until the middle of the seventeenth century. The expansion of Britain, which gives us to-day a Greater

Britain, inhabited beyond the seas on every side by men of British extraction, did not begin on a large scale till the eighteenth century.

England is now the centre of this Greater Britain. Our Parliament at Westminster has many matters to think of. It is the supreme governing authority for the greatest Empire the world has ever seen. This Empire includes within its borders a quarter of the human race. Even the great self-governing dominions, such as Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, which have Parliaments of their own, have received their power of self-government from laws passed at Westminster.

When we look at a map of the world, we find that a country like the Dominion of Canada or the Commonwealth of Australia, or the Empire of India, is far larger than the whole of the British Isles.

Once England made the mistake of supposing that a colony inhabited by men of British blood could be governed in the interest of the homeland, without due consideration for the views of its own people. England tried to tax America without consulting the Americans. That error cost

the Empire the United States. The Americans resisted the tea-tax, as their fathers had resisted the benevolences and ship-money which Charles I. had claimed illegally from his subjects.

This loss of a great colony taught England a lesson. Since that time England has always known that, wherever lands come under the British flag, it is the duty of the English to seek the well-being of the people who live in these lands. We do not regard India or Egypt as mere sources of profit to England. The interests of the native races of India or Egypt are present to the minds of Englishmen.

The British Empire is a band of free states. It is united by common interests and desires. It is not a number of colonies ruled by one sovereign state. This is true of all the larger colonies. But England has some smaller and newer possessions, inhabited by people with little political skill or experience in governing themselves. They are ruled by nominated governors or other officers, that is, men chosen in England. Such Crown Colonies, as they are called, are Basutoland in Africa and the island of Jamaica, north-east of the isthmus of Panama.

The British Empire can only exist because it is protected by a navy. The ocean surrounds all the lands of the earth. The navy, therefore, can be made ready to protect all the scattered British possessions. If India, Canada, Australia and South Africa were separate states, each would need a large navy with which to defend itself. Even then, these states could not defend themselves single-handed against the strongest navies of the other nations.

British harbours are scattered over the world. This enables our battleships to obtain food and coal. On the road to India there are Gibraltar, Malta and Aden. Going round the Cape of Good Hope there are Sierra Leone, Ascension, St. Helena, Simonstown and Mauritius.

It is in this way that all the different parts of the Empire are united to help one another and protect the safety and commerce of the whole Empire.

Imperialism is a sense of responsibility felt by each separate country to the Empire. Each state or colony has to take a share in the protection of the common welfare. Neither the mother country nor its daughter dominions can always protect

themselves without the help of the entire family.

We shall tell you in another chapter what a splendid example we have had in this Great War of the firm union of all parts of the Empire.

CHAPTER X

THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS (CANADA)

BEFORE we recount the splendid way in which the great self-governing dominions came to the help of the Empire in the Great War, it will be well to learn a few facts about their governments and past histories.

The Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia are so large that they cannot be governed from one centre. Both countries are made up of several states, and they have Home Rule for each one of the different states. Thus, the Canadian or the Australian or the South African is ruled by, and has to obey, the laws of the state in which he lives as well as the laws of the whole country. This is just the same as if a Yorkshire boy had to obey the laws of Yorkshire and a Kentish boy the laws of Kent as well as the laws of England.

Every Canadian, every Australian and every South African is living in what is called a federal state. A federal state is a state composed of states. In the British Empire such states have to obey three Parliaments. Suppose you were living in the state of Quebec, you would have to obey the State Parliament of Quebec, the Parliament of the Dominion of Canada and the Imperial Parliament at Westminster. The State Parliaments pass local laws for governing their own affairs ; the Dominion Parliament passes laws for the whole country, while the Imperial Parliament at Westminster decides matters concerning the British Empire in its relations with other foreign countries.

The first Europeans who settled in Canada were French fur-traders. The colony was French until the Seven Years' War, which war, you will remember, took place in the reigns of George II. and George III. The French and the English fought on different sides. General James Wolfe, a red-haired man of Kent, was the English leader. The French leader was called Mountcalm.

General Wolfe besieged Quebec, which was well defended by the French. Their

work of defence was made easy by the natural position of the town, which stands on a height. A stratagem was tried by Wolfe. He sent some ships up the River Lawrence, and, as the ships moved up the river, the troops which had been besieging the town followed them. Mountcalm was puzzled by this movement. What did the troops intend to do by leaving the town? This he was to discover when night fell. The troops then entered flat-bottomed boats and floated with the current back towards the town. They reached the base of a high plain, which commands the city of Quebec.

At the foot of the rocks, boat after boat landed its men, where they were concealed by the thick bushes growing on the precipitous ascent. The whole army climbed up silently. The fall of a single stone beneath a man's foot echoed in the silence. All the men were at the city walls before the French were alarmed.

At daybreak Mountcalm saw them. There was little time in which to prepare. He was unable to make use of his artillery, and by this he lost a decided advantage. The English had very little artillery, as it

had not been possible to drag the guns up the steep rocks.

The English were victorious and took the town. Unfortunately, General Wolfe was killed. Three balls were lodged in his body, and one was fatal. Mountcalm was also killed.

Soon after the taking of Quebec, Canada was transferred to Great Britain.

It was not long before the French inhabitants of Canada were satisfied with this transference of their country to the rule of Great Britain. The French language to this day is spoken by the French Canadians. The laws of the dominion have been greatly influenced by old French law. England has not imposed the ideas of the British Isles on the distant Dominion of Canada. When the American colonies which now form the United States fought against Great Britain, the Canadians refused to join them.

CHAPTER XI

THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS (NEW ZEALAND)

THE most distant of the English dominions is New Zealand. Look at the globe and

you will see a great island lying between the coast of Asia and the west of North America. This is Australia. It is about thirty-four times larger than Great Britain.

In the same ocean as Australia, the Pacific Ocean, lies New Zealand. New Zealand consists of a North, a South and a Middle Island, as well as other smaller islands.

New Zealand is an enterprising country, and its governments have in modern times shown great boldness. The Government owns the coal-mines, and sells the coal that is taken from them. The hospitals and the medicinal springs are not in private hands, but are owned by public bodies. Much has also been done to improve the position of prisoners. Some are sent to a state farm; others are taught to plant forests in waste places, and, when working, they live in camps. In these ways they are taught to be useful citizens much more quickly than by shutting them up in prisons.

Another good measure which New Zealand has passed for the benefit of its citizens is a Minimum Wage Act, that is, an Act which fixes the lowest wage at which any one may be employed. No one may start working in a factory for less than 5s.

a week for the first year ; and no one of full age may have less than 20s. a week. This does much to prevent poverty.

We have given you just a few examples of what the New Zealand Government does for its people.

In the South Island of the New Zealand group, Mount Cook raises its ice-bound head. Around it lie great glaciers.

This mountain for ever bears the name of the great English explorer, Captain James Cook. He was not the first voyager to see the coast of Australia. A Dutch navigator in 1642 sighted the country after visiting Van Diemen's Land, which still bears a Dutch name. No one else visited New Zealand till Captain Cook went there in 1769. But you must not think these beautiful islands were uninhabited. The Maori, who lived there, are one of the finest native races ever met with by European settlers. Captain Cook, who three times sailed round the world, mapped out parts of New Zealand. He hoisted the Union Jack upon the Islands, and then sailed away.

The New Zealand islands were next visited by seal-fishers. For twenty years the

sealers carried on a profitable trade in the skins of the seal ; but their cruel slaughter of these fine animals ruined the trade.

In 1840 the native chiefs made Her Majesty Queen Victoria the sovereign of the Dominion of New Zealand. The Queen at once gave the native owners full possession of their lands, and all the inhabitants became British citizens.

Captain Cook did a great service for England in hoisting the British flag on New Zealand's shores. Here he founded a new England in southern seas. We must remember Captain Cook for more than his geographical discoveries. He made great improvements in the conditions of seamen. In his first voyage, he noticed with sorrow how many men suffered from scurvy and fever, from which some never recovered. He found this was due to the men eating salt meat and to the want of vegetables. By the use of malt and vegetables that could be preserved, he made the health of the men far better than it had ever been before. He did more than this. He kept the ship clean and dry. He also divided the men into three watches, in order that he might reduce in every case

the amount of continuous exposure to the weather.

This man, who did so much for England, and worked so nobly for the good of sailors, met with a cruel death. He was killed by the natives of Hawaii, one of the Sandwich Islands, which are between Australia and North America.

Captain Cook was annoyed at the natives stealing ship's property. The last theft had been a ship's cutter. He wished to decide the matter peaceably, and went to argue with the island chiefs, so that the thief might be given up to him for punishment. While the conference was going on between Captain Cook and the chiefs, another native chief was killed. This act, though done by Captain Cook's men, took place without his knowledge. The native who lost his life was stopped on the sea while trying to leave the bay in his canoe. On news of his death reaching the land, a general attack was made on the marines who were on shore, and on Captain Cook himself. The attack was so sudden that there was no opportunity for resistance. Captain Cook was clubbed and stabbed by a crowd of natives. The ship's officers and

sailors in the boats were not able to get to him, and the confusion was so great that they feared to shoot ; but afterwards the commanding officer was blamed for his apparent cowardice.

CHAPTER XII

THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS (AUSTRALIA)

WE told you in the last chapter where the large self-governing island-continent of Australia is situated. You will remember that it lies in the same ocean as the islands of New Zealand. On one of his journeys, Captain Cook visited Australia, but we do not know that he did more than just land on its coasts. He gave its name to Botany Bay, which for some time was famous as a penal settlement.

Australia is so very large a country that the full exploration of its interior was only slowly completed. It has a great variety of climates and scenery. There are tropical forests with blue-leaved eucalyptus trees in some parts of the country. In other districts there are vast, treeless plains,

where sheep graze or where wheat is grown. The typical native animal is the kangaroo. As some of you know, great quantities of meat and butter and fruits are sent to England from Australia. This has been made possible by the discovery of the cold storage of food produce. If you go over a cold-storage warehouse, you will see room after room filled with all kinds of food. Meat, butter, cheese and fish or fruits can be kept fresh even for months, until they are wanted. This discovery of how to keep food has been of more value to Australia than were all her gold mines. Gold deposits were mined and used up. But the storage of the meat enables us in Britain, who are short of food, to eat up each year the cattle that the Australians do not need themselves.

In the eighteenth century colonists began to go from England to settle in Australia on grants of land which were given to them by the British Government. This led to abuses. Single settlers were allowed to claim more land than they could properly cultivate. A change was made. The State began to sell its lands instead of giving free grants. The men having to pay for their lands took pains to get more produce from them.

For a long time Great Britain feared that the various settlements would only cause expense and trouble to England. They did not foresee the great things that Australia was one day to do for the mother country.

In 1870 the British troops that had been protecting Australia were withdrawn. Australia was now able to defend herself on land. The country began to have an army, raised on her own soil.

By sea, Australia was still protected by the British Royal Navy. After nearly twenty years, in 1887, Australia began to pay part of the cost of this defence by sea. She undertook to contribute a sum for ten years to Great Britain towards the naval squadron in Australian waters. At the same time, a similar grant was made by New Zealand, which was also guarded by the Pacific fleet.

But Australia did more than this. In 1909 she started to build a fleet of her own. This was the beginning of the fleet which has done such splendid work in the Great War.

In the early stages of the war the Australian cruisers rendered great service. They got to sea and protected Australia and New

Zealand from attacks by the German Pacific fleet. They took part in the capture of German New Guinea, one of the earliest German colonies to be taken from her in the war. They destroyed merchant vessels belonging to the enemy, and captured the German gunboat *Komet*. They also destroyed every one of the German wireless stations in the Pacific. But the most important work they accomplished was the chasing of the German Pacific fleet from Pacific waters. This resulted in the destruction of this fleet off the Falkland Islands. Yet another deed of valour was done, when H.M.A.S. *Sydney* engaged and destroyed the German cruiser *Emden* off the Cocos Islands.

What a splendid return Australia and the other self-governing colonies have made to the motherland for the help given them in their younger years.

There is an interesting fact you will like to know about the Australian army. Before the war Australia had adopted compulsory military training for all its citizens. Even boys were to be trained to serve their country. This Act was passed in 1911. Boys of twelve to eighteen

years of age are formed into cadet corps for training. The older youths and men are formed into two divisions, which are known as the Citizen Force, which has to fight first, and the Reserved Citizen Force, which is only called upon to fight when it becomes necessary. In this way, all the Australian citizens are trained to be ready to defend the Empire.

CHAPTER XIII

THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS (SOUTH AFRICA)

IN this chapter we are going to speak of the Union of South Africa. This land became a self-governing dominion only a few years ago, in 1910. It contains four provinces. Once they were independent states. They are the provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange Free State.

British South Africa is placed at the extreme south of the African continent. It is about three times as large as Great Britain. Much of it is a very dry land. Even rivers which look large on the map are often almost without water. There

are many swamps near the east coast. The interior is a high table-land, growing more and more waterless as we go westward.

The history of South Africa is difficult, because the country contains many races. In this it is like India. The three chief races found in South Africa in the nineteenth century were the Dutch, the English, and the Kaffirs, as certain of the native tribes are called. The Dutch owned slaves. The English missionaries interfered in Cape Colony between the Dutch farmer and his slave. The Boers, as the Dutch farmers were called, did not like this. In 1834 the holding of slaves was made illegal in the whole British Empire. This made the Dutch still more angry. In 1836 the Great Trek took place. This means that many Boers took their oxen and household goods and went out of British territory into the wilderness. They made new homes for themselves in the part of South Africa which later became known as the Transvaal.

The Dutch Boers in South Africa were not governed from Holland. In the same way as the United States of America have set up a Republic not connected with the English Crown, so the Dutch settlers

had gradually founded two Dutch Republics. They were called the Orange Free State and the Transvaal.

Many English people settled in the Dutch colonies as time went on. There were different views among the settlers as to the best future for South Africa. Some hoped to see it a self-governing British colony, others did not wish this. The Dutch would have liked the Transvaal to become the centre of South African affairs.

In South Africa, as in many other parts of the world, the ownership of the coast was coveted by rival Powers. The coast-lands include the ports, through which goods must pass. This brings much trade to the people in the ports.

In 1885 a great gold-field was discovered in the Transvaal. This completely changed the country. It brought into a land of homely, ignorant and solitude-loving Boer farmers a host of energetic foreigners—Americans, English and Germans. The newcomers were adventurous men and eager to get rich.

Another source of power in South Africa was the diamond mines. They became the

monopoly of two groups of men. (That is, all the mines were owned by these two groups.) The head of one group was Cecil Rhodes, of whom you may have heard. He used his great wealth and power to try to strengthen the British Empire in South Africa.

The rush of miners, and of other immigrants dependent on mining, frightened the Boers. They shut them out from all political power. Their Government sold the right to sell dynamite, needed for mining, to a single firm. All this caused great discontent among the Uitlanders, as the foreign immigrants were called. They found themselves living in a country, and yet, however faithfully they served it, they were never to be given the rights of citizens.

These difficulties led to the Boer War. We have no space to tell you of this war, which lasted from 1899 to 1902. After the war, good feeling between the English and the Dutch was established more quickly than might have been expected. In the year 1910 the different South African states were joined together to form one state. This state is completely self-governing. The Dutch and English are given

equal political rights. Both the Dutch and English languages are used for official purposes.

This happy settlement coming so soon after war gives us a proof of English statesmanship. The British are able to overcome enmity and unite many peoples into one Empire.

CHAPTER XIV

EGYPT

To find Egypt, we have to look at the lowest part of the map of Europe or the top part of the map of Africa. It is the country which lies at the north-east corner of Africa. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ; on the south and west by deserts ; and on the north-east by the Sinai Peninsula, which connects it with Palestine and Arabia. On its south-east border lies the Red Sea. The huge river, the Nile, runs through Egypt from south to north.

If this book had been written before the war we should not have said much about

Egypt. The English were in Egypt before the war, but they were not settled there permanently. They occupied it for a time in order to keep order in the country.

When Turkey joined our enemies in the Great War, we declared that we had established a British Protectorate over Egypt. That was in 1914.

This strange country has fascinated all those who have visited or who have even read about it. The Greeks considered it a land of marvels and of wisdom. The fact that it is a desert watered by the annual flooding of the Nile, and manured by the silt (or mud) brought down by that river, is in itself a source of wonder.

Egypt has a written history of more than seven thousand years. At the British Museum we see some of its strange, huge goddesses and gods. Some have seated human bodies and the heads of cats, whose eyes gaze calmly forward.

Every one has seen pictures of the great pyramids, which cover the bodies of the dead Kings and heroes of Egypt. These Kings, as well as persons of lesser importance, were embalmed, so that their bodies, made into mummies, yet rest within the

pyramid tombs. You can see some of these mummies in the British Museum in London.

During almost all modern times, Egypt has been badly governed. For long periods it was supposed to belong to Turkey, but the Turks were not always able to control its Government. The ruler, who was nominally a vassal of the Sultan of Turkey, was largely independent. The peasants, who are called fellahin, were heavily taxed, and the taxes collected at unexpected times. No one ever knew what would be the amount of the taxes. This caused the peasants to fall into the hands of money-lenders. If they did not pay the taxes, the punishment inflicted was commonly that of beating.

Egypt was ruled by a Viceroy of Turkey at the time when the English interfered in its affairs. The English introduced order and system in the collection of taxes. They abolished the unpaid, forced labour, which had been demanded from the workers. They improved the system of using the waters of the Nile. Now, in many parts, two crops can be grown where before there was only one each year. The great dam, which holds up the water of the Nile at

Assuan, is a celebrated triumph of modern engineering accomplished under enormous difficulties. The sharing of the water, so that the large landowner does not rob the poor landowner of what both need for the cultivation of their land, has been made fair under English rule. It was not so before their time.

Egypt contains many foreigners, Europeans of different nationalities. This has long led to a great evil. There is not one system of law which is applied to all who live in the land.

The English in Egypt for a long time did not claim to govern the country. It was supposed still to belong to Turkey. The Turkish Sultan signed great State documents relating to it. The English were only there to advise and assist the Government. The Khedive, as the ruler of Egypt was called, was the Sultan's Viceroy. As we told you before, in 1914 the country was openly proclaimed a British Protectorate, and the ruler was called Sultan of Egypt. It will now be easier to do away with many difficulties.

Great improvements have been made in the army of Egypt. The fellahin, who, as

you will remember, are the peasants, had been very bad soldiers when conscripted by the Turks. Their officers so ill-used them that they did not care to face an enemy. They could never tell how long they would have to serve in the army, and this angered them. The English have entirely altered these conditions. An army of Egyptians, not large when we think of their numbers, is raised by conscription. It is partly officered by Englishmen, partly by Egyptians. The higher grades are held by English officers. The army of Egypt has given valuable help in the wars in the Sudan and in protecting the Egyptian frontier. Negroes from the Sudan form part of the Egyptian army. What they are doing in the Great War is not yet known.

The English influence in Egyptian affairs has been for good. As in other countries, our original motives for entering the country were mixed. But our purpose in recent years has been to promote the welfare of the inhabitants.

CHAPTER XV

THE INDIAN EMPIRE

INDIA is a large peninsula, the situation of which you will understand if you think of it as the Italy of Asia, but instead of having the form of a leg, it is shaped like a pear. On one side of it lie Afghanistan and Baluchistan, on the other Tibet, Nepal and Burma. The seas that surround it are called the Arabian Sea, the Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal. The island at its base is called Ceylon.

This mighty country contains three hundred millions of people, seven times as many people as there are in the British Isles. These three hundred million inhabitants are made up of many races. They speak different languages. Their religions, customs and laws are not the same. It is important to remember this. When many races live together in one country, it is difficult to get them to live peaceably.

Each one of the Indian races presents a different appearance. The Afghan has an olive complexion, aquiline features and a

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long nose. The Hill Tribes look like negroes. The Bengalis have heavy lower jaws and squat features. These are just a few of the types of the peoples who live in India.

There are more languages spoken in India than in the whole of Europe. The most important are Hindi, Bengali, Assamese, and Tamil. These are hard words to remember, but we ought to try to know more about India, which is a British Possession.

The great provinces of India are governed by Lieutenant-Governors, who are always Englishmen. The most important of these provinces are the Punjab, Bombay, Madras, and Bengal. These Lieutenant-Governors are helped by Councils. The members of these Councils are either selected by the Lieutenant-Governor himself, in which case they are said to be "nominated," or named, or they are recommended to him by a University, Chamber of Commerce, or other body of important persons. The masses of the Indians are not ready for complete control of their public affairs.

Part of the country is not ruled directly by the English. There are a number of native states, which are governed by native

rulers, under the protection of Great Britain. The largest of these native states is Hyderabad, which is situated in the south, in the central plain. This state contains eleven and a half million persons. These native princes rallied splendidly to the help of the Empire at the beginning of the Great War.

A ruler is appointed to control the civil and military government of all India on behalf of the King of England, who is also Emperor of India. This ruler is called the Viceroy of India. The present Viceroy is Lord Chelmsford. This Viceroy, or Governor-General, has the very widest powers. He is appointed only for a limited period, usually five years. He is helped in his control of the entire Indian Empire by a Council of six members, who are appointed by the Government in England. In order to lessen the power given to the Viceroy, he must usually follow the advice of his Council, or the majority (that is, the larger number) of its members. He himself counts as one member, when the opinion of the members is counted. The Viceroy may disregard the advice of the Council when the safety of India is concerned.

The Lieutenant-Governors of the provinces are appointed by the Viceroy.

You see that India, being a very large country, is governed partly by a central Government in Delhi, which is now the capital of India, and partly by local Governors and Councils in the capital towns of the provinces, such as Madras, Bombay or Calcutta.

In England, the British Government control India through the Secretary of State for India. He has a Council to help him. We tell you these facts, which are not very interesting to boys and girls, because until you know how India is governed, you will not be able to understand many events that happen there. You will wish to understand these events later when you read the newspapers.

CHAPTER XVI

THE ENGLISH IN INDIA

THERE was a time when England did not own India. It was through the energy of the Portuguese that Europeans first secured a footing in that country. The

Portuguese established fortified trading settlements on the coast. Before that time the Venetians and the Arabs had been the main traders between Europe and India. By the end of the sixteenth century, Venice, the magnificent city of palaces, whose streets are canals, had lost its control of Eastern commerce.

Chartered companies were founded to enable merchants to trade in distant places. These companies were given very wide powers under Charters granted by their Governments. They had private armies to defend themselves against native princes. The countries to which the traders belonged were not responsible for their actions. The English company would wage war with the Portuguese when England and Portugal were at peace.

The most celebrated of these companies was the East India Company, founded in 1600. At that time East India was the name given to India, Java, Siam and the islands in the Java and China Seas.

The company gradually extended its power. It was helped to do this by constant warfare between the native races.

Meantime, the French had founded an

important trading settlement. In 1746 they seized Madras from the English. This caused further trouble. It became more and more difficult for England to assist its subjects in a country where no kind of government had existed for centuries, and where first one and then another despot was trying to gain power for himself.

In 1756 the Nabob of Bengal took Calcutta. He then carried out that dreadful deed which makes the Black Hole of Calcutta a name of terror in the history of the East. One hundred and forty-six English prisoners were crushed into a small room, twenty feet square, into which only two small gratings admitted air. Next morning, twenty-three only were alive, and these twenty-three ghastly figures staggered or were lifted from the poisonous room. Swift vengeance fell on the cruel tyrant at the hands of Clive, one of the great military rulers of this period.

India was at this time rapidly becoming British, but the British Government was not wholly and openly ruler of any part of it. Warren Hastings was made the first Governor-General of India by Act of Parliament in 1774. The native princes joined

together to dispute his power. Wherever he obtained control, he used violent means to raise large sums of money from the Indian rulers. He was recalled to England in 1785, and three years later was tried for tyranny and corruption. He was finally acquitted after a trial which extended over eight years.

The history of India is too difficult to give in detail, but you must understand that little by little our Parliament gained control over Indian affairs.

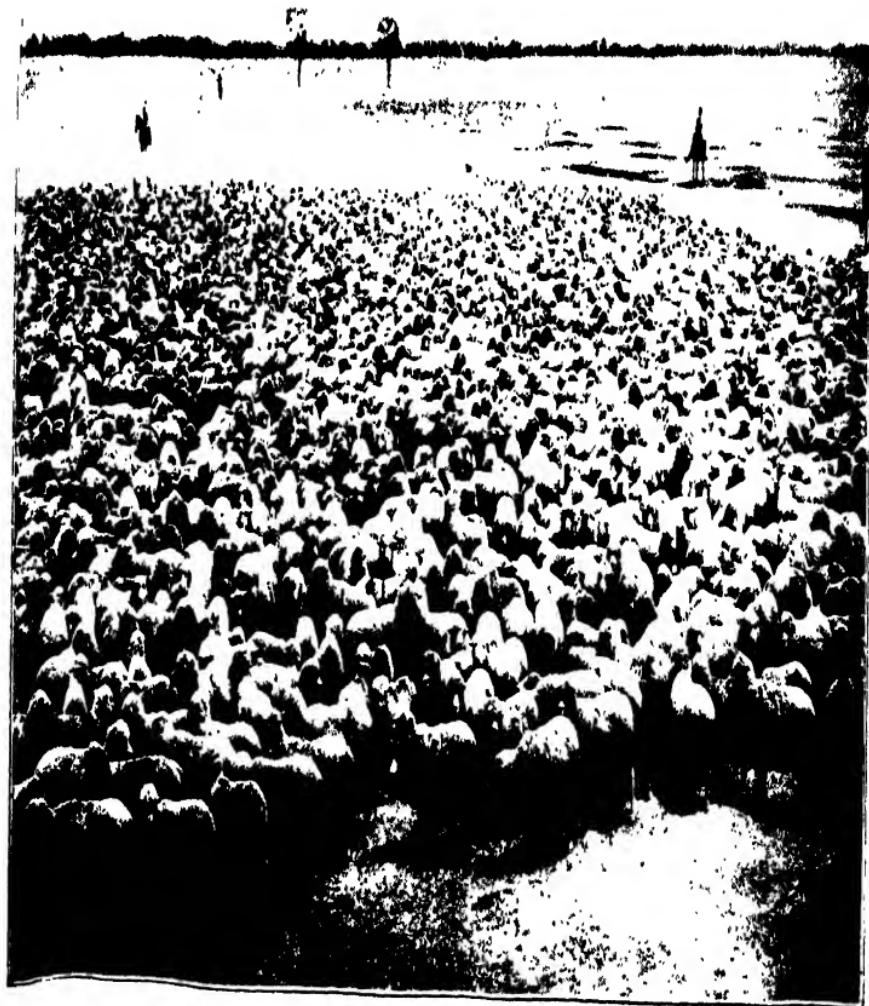
Great trouble arose in 1857. A mutiny broke out in the Bengal army. The English rulers had not fully understood the religious feelings of the Sepoys, as the native soldiers are called. Greased cartridges were served to the soldiers. They thought this grease was taken from the fat of cows. As Hindus, they thought it wrong to kill cows. Even to touch the cartridges would have caused a man of the highest caste to descend to the level of the lowest caste. This loss of caste would be a great misfortune to a Hindu.

There are four principal castes. The Brahmans or priests form the highest caste, and the cultivators of the soil

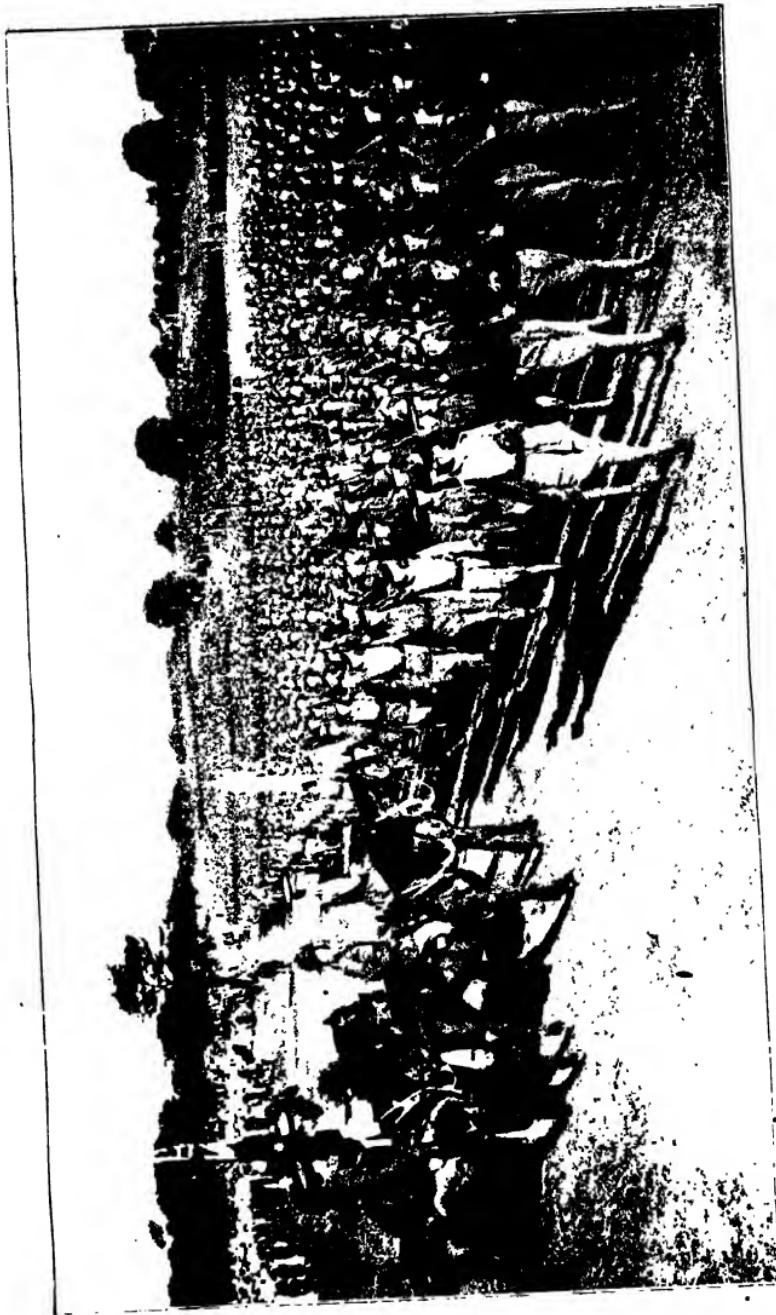
the lowest. Men of a higher caste will have nothing to do with men of a lower caste. A priest even avoids letting the breath of a low-caste man touch him. Pariahs are men who have lost all caste. We now use this word in English to mean an outcast.

Those Indians who are Hindus are born in societies in which each man naturally respects and lives according to the caste distinctions. Each man's trade is determined by the caste he is born in : he has the same trade as his father. These ideas could not be altered by the English, and it is only by respecting them that the English can avoid hurting the feelings of the Indians.

There is one more fact you need to know about the history of India. In 1897 Queen Victoria assumed the title of Empress of India. Her successors on the British throne will all be Emperors or Empresses of the Indian Empire.



AN AUSTRALIAN SHEEP FARM.



AUSTRALIAN CADETS.

CHAPTER XVII

LESSONS TO BE LEARNT FROM BRITISH IN INDIA

BRITISH rule in India has given great benefits to the Indian peoples. It has given peace, where once there was constant war, and where conquerors from foreign lands were ever on the watch for fresh chances of plunder. Settled government has given men opportunity for settled lives. It has removed the fear that industry would lead only to despotic exactions, and to robbery at the hands of those in authority, who should have stood for justice.

The evil of occasional failure of rains, which ever threatens parts of India with famine, is one which we could not wholly cure. But the English have done something to lessen the suffering caused by these famines. They have made canals for irrigation (that is, for the spreading of water over the dry lands which else could not be cultivated). The English have also made railways and roads by which food

can be brought from districts where the harvest has not failed to those parts where there has been no rain.

British rule has recognised that the laws of India must be built up on the customs of the Indians. Native judges are in many matters guided by the laws respected by the Hindus and Mohammedans. Both Hindus and Mohammedans belong to religions which regulate many habits of daily life which Europeans do not consider connected with religion.

When we speak of natives, we always mean the people who lived in a country before Europeans came there. There is something we now want you specially to notice. In speaking of natives in connection with Australia or New Zealand or Canada (once inhabited by the Red Indians) or with South Africa, we refer to savage peoples. They may be different one from another in many respects, but they are all inferior or less advanced than ourselves, because they have no great literature, no system of civilisation handed down to them by distant ages. The chief races of India are very different. Their great epic poem, the "Mahabharata," may have been begun

to be put together out of earlier heroic lays about five centuries before the birth of Christ. Their civilisation is far older than that of Great Britain or France.

We can gain the affection of peoples with old civilisations only by showing some knowledge of the feelings which they derive from their own writings, and from the customs handed to them by their fathers. It is in gaining this affection that Englishmen have somewhat failed. Our rule has brought material benefits to India. The Indian Mutiny showed that we had not then completely succeeded in satisfying those we rule over.

We have to recognise that the Indians are both like us and unlike us. On arriving in a country where the people are very unlike ourselves in appearance, in China for example, at first sight it seems to us that all the people look alike. We see so strongly the differences between them and the people we are used to, that we cannot see any difference between one of them and another. Later, when we are used to their Chinese appearance, we find among them different types and classes, such as we knew in England. We see that

some are country labourers, others townsmen. We notice that some look kind, and others sly : some look rough, and others refined.

Every single person looks like a native of a certain race and place, but he is also a special individual, not quite the same in character as any other.

In order to deal wisely and kindly with a people, we have to recognise the qualities peculiar to them, as well as those general feelings and desires which they possess in common with other races. It is a sign of ignorance, if we only despise the things in which they differ from us. There are villages in England where a man coming from the next village is called a "foreigner." This is wrong. But we are not wrong in valuing our own customs. When we meet with strange customs and religions we should try to find out why they are valued by those who practise and believe in them ; we should neither over-admire them because they are new, nor laugh at them because they are strange.

We are at home in the great British Empire, which is a home to men with many different customs and holding different

creeds ; we must learn to approach those who are strange to us with a sense of their citizenship in common in one great Empire with ourselves. That Empire must benefit by the various gifts which its differing children can give to its service.

CHAPTER XVIII

CAUSES OF THE GREAT WAR

TWICE has England defeated those who would enslave Europe. Once, when it aided in the defeat of Napoleon, who for some twenty years was the terror of the civilised world, and a second time, when in the Great War, it stood by France, Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro and Italy, against Germany.

Resistance to Germany's thirst for conquest was our motive for entering into the war. But many incidents led up to the war. These you will like to know.

In June, 1914, the heir to the Austrian throne, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, was murdered. The Austrians accused the Serbians of having planned the murder on Serbian soil. It was not proved that the

Serbians had done this, but Austria made the most humiliating demands from Serbia. England did all she could to get Austria to consent to a settlement of the dispute by means of peaceable conversations.

Now, the Serbians are allied by their past history and by race to Russia. The Austrians, on the other hand, are closely connected with Germany. Russia saw Austria's threatening attitude towards Serbia and felt obliged to mobilise, that is, call up her soldiers to be ready to fight in case of need. The great size of the Russian Empire and the poorness of her roads and railways compel her to prepare early when she may need her army. Once before when Austria added certain Serbian states (Bosnia and Herzegovina) to her Empire, Russia had not been ready to offer protection to her friends. This had taught the Russians a lesson.

Germany professed to believe that Russia was preparing to fight her. But this was not all. Germany assumed that France might attack her, because France was allied to Russia. Germany would not assure England that she might not seize the French colonies. She would not assure

us that the great French nation would not be utterly crushed.

War could not be prevented. Germany's next action made it impossible for England to stand aside, and watch the other nations fighting. German armies invaded Luxembourg. Two days later, they entered Belgium, the land which they were to lay waste. This they did, in spite of the fact that Belgium was a neutral state. A neutral country is a country which the great states protect, on condition that it takes no part in any war. As a rule, it is the small states that cannot defend themselves that are permanently neutral.

Belgium, which is a small country, lying between northern France and south-western Germany, is a neutral country. The treaty which established Belgium as a neutral Power was signed by England, France, Austria, Russia and Prussia. Prussia is the chief state in the federated German Empire. The treaty clearly stated that nations at war with each other may not move troops or munitions of war across the neutral land.

Germany regarded this treaty as "a scrap of paper." These were the very words

applied to it by the Imperial Chancellor in his interview with the British ambassador;

When Germany broke that solemn treaty, England had every reason to fight. Our honour and our safety made it necessary. Our honour demanded it, because we could not see a weak nation, which might not declare war, crushed by a vast Empire. We were bound to help Belgium ; our own signature stood on the treaty of neutrality. Our safety required us to fight, because if Germany, with her great military power, controlled the excellent Belgian ports, which are pointed against our shores, it would not take many years for her to prepare to attack us with blows which we might not be able to withstand.

Germany, with boundless confidence in the strength of her huge army, believed she could by sheer force conquer an Empire in a short time. It was not thus that England won her Empire. England, as you have seen in earlier chapters, may be said to have become the centre of a great and powerful Empire almost by chance. The Empire was not won by the deliberate designs of a Government, but by the enterprise and love of adventure of countless

colonists. When we think of India and of New Zealand or Australia, we remember how trading companies and private men of adventurous spirit went to lands where there was no European population, and founded trading or agricultural settlements. South Africa was won almost against the wishes of the Colonial Office at home. The Home Government was afraid of the enterprise of the South African colonists.

Germany came late into the ranks of the great nations. Her Empire was founded only in 1870, by the federation of the different German states. The older countries had already laid the foundations of their overseas dominions. Germany wished in the same way to own colonies, but most of the countries available for colonisation were taken by the European Powers. This made Germany dissatisfied. But she should not have quarrelled with what could not be helped. Already her rule in Alsace and Poland had shown that German rule could not satisfy the desires of conquered peoples.

The British Empire gave entry to her goods and traders in the same way as it did to those of other countries. We could

not allow her desire for "world power" to be satisfied by ruthless tyranny.

Germany is a land in which it is generally believed that whatever an army can do for a country is right. This doctrine is sometimes called "militarism." Individuals may do wrong, but the power of the State can do no wrong. It is the State's business to expand and to steal.

Militarism justified German submarines in sinking unarmed merchant-ships. Militarism justified the series of terrible atrocities which were deliberately committed in Belgium. German soldiers were ordered to murder Belgian civilians, plunder their houses and burn down their cities. They introduced into war the use of suffocating gases. They had promised at the Hague Conference that such gases would not be used by them in war.

If the fault of Germany is to believe that the army can do no wrong, our fault is to believe that each man may do what he can to gain money for himself. The Germans allow the State to do too much what it likes; we allow the individual to do too much what he likes. It is not true that all is right that enables the State to get power,

or the individual to get rich. How far "militarism" has led the Germans to forget all claims of humanity, the terrible and useless cruelties committed by them in this war have shown.

CHAPTER XIX

THE GREAT WAR

WE cannot give you a full history of the Great War, but in this chapter we shall tell you something about it.

You all of you know that in this war the English troops have had to fight in ways never used by them before. Most of the fighting has been done from trenches. Leading from the trenches at certain places are "dug-outs." These are wider spaces, roughly roofed over, in which the men can eat and rest. There is never a man to be seen, for they must keep their heads below the trenches. Behind the front trenches are other trenches, which lead in a zigzag way to the front.

Behind all these are the aerodromes and captive balloons of our watchers, who give the ranges to the gunners. The roads are

busy with our motor-transport feeding vans. All parts of the army are connected by telephones and telegraphs.

A battle usually starts with a terrific artillery bombardment, lasting sometimes for days. This is done to destroy the enemy's trenches, before our men try to charge into them, and take them by assault. All movements of troops to relieve those in the firing-line are carried out at night, so that they may not be seen by the enemy.

For long months the war was waged in this way, in almost stationary trenches. Yet you will remember all the war has not been carried on just like this. At the beginning of the war the Germans made their rapid sweep towards Paris. One of the early incidents in this progress was the fighting retreat of the British army from Mons. There is no military operation so hard to carry out as a fighting retreat.

The British force had been left in a dangerous position by the defeat of part of the French army, east of Mons, and near to the Belgian frontier. The English were left in isolation at Mons. The battle began on August 23rd, along a front twenty-five miles in length. The Germans had a

great superiority in numbers and in guns. They advanced, invisible in greyish-green uniforms. Their aeroplanes helped their gunners by dropping bombs, which fell with a trail of dark smoke.

The bridges of a canal were attacked. Here the Victoria Cross was won by Captain Theodore Wright of the Engineers. He placed a fuse to blow up a bridge. In so doing, he was wounded in the head. The fuse failed to act. Then he went a second time to place a fuse. The bridge was blown up. This gave the English more time to retreat before the Germans. He is but one of a great army of heroes, some known, some unknown, who have done mighty deeds for the glory of England in this war.

News received in the midst of battle showed Sir John French that a further retreat must be made. For six days our armies pushed onwards to the south with the Germans pressing. Sometimes they fought all day and marched all night. It would be impossible to tell you of the endurance and bravery of our soldiers. Some of the English forces were attacked for eight hours by four times their number.

Magnificent cavalry charges were made by the Scots Greys, the 12th Lancers, and the 20th Hussars.

When not far from Paris, the German pursuit slackened. In spite of all they had done, they had not done enough. The power to fight, the determination to fight, was still alive in the French and English soldiers. The siege of Paris would never be undertaken.

Von Kluck, the German general, now made his celebrated mistake. He believed the British army was dispirited by constant retreat. He hoped to separate the English from the French army by marching his right wing across the English front. The English attacked him. He was forced to retreat before their fire.

Every English boy and girl should feel pride in knowing what has been achieved by our armies, and the armies of our Allies. We have told you this series of incidents on the western front, that took place when first the peace of the world was broken, in order that you may be stirred to read for yourself a complete history of the World War.

CHAPTER XX

HEROES OF THE GREAT WAR

THE Great War has shown us how closely united are all the parts of our great Empire. This has been a lesson to all the world. Germany expected something very different. Germany saw that the self-governing dominions had become almost entirely independent. She could not believe that love of England, and feeling of kinship, would inspire them to make great sacrifices of money and of blood to help the mother-land in her fight.

The conduct of South Africa, in particular, astonished Germany. This land had become a self-governing country only twelve years before, and as a result of a prolonged war. Germany had forgotten how fairly South Africa had been treated by England after the Boer war. The British Parliament, as you will remember, had granted self-government to South Africa. What purpose was there for Dutchmen to rise in rebellion against a Govern-

ment which was made up almost entirely of Dutch statesmen ?

England owes much to the loyalty of the Dutchmen.. General Smuts carried out an effective campaign in German South Africa, to the west of the British territory.

Germany also expected India and Egypt to rebel. Again Germany utterly miscalculated. Egypt remained loyal. The rulers of the native states of India, with one accord, offered their persons and the treasures of their states to aid England against the common enemy. The proudest princes of India buckled on their swords and were eager to reach France, the seat of the war. They were led by the gallant Sir Pertab Singh, Regent of Jodhpur. At seventy years of age, he was still anxious to face the foe upon the battlefield.

Splendid service has been done for the Empire by the self-governing nations, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. At the outbreak of the war a great voluntary army was raised and trained by the Canadian Minister of Militia, Major-General Sir Sam Hughes. These young, untried troops showed their unbreakable spirit on many battlefields. We will tell you one

instance. At the great battle of Ypres, the Canadians found themselves with an unsupported left flank. The Germans, by the unsportsmanlike use of suffocating gas, had thrust back part of the French line. The Canadians, in face of a direct frontal fire, advanced, and drove back the enemy from one of the positions they had captured. Part of the troops faced the suffocating gas with no protection against its blinding and lung-corroding power except wet handkerchiefs. Unsupported detachments at times were left in the most dangerous positions. It ought to make British boys and girls proud to read of these great deeds.

The valour of the overseas men at the Dardanelles will never be forgotten. Here the Australians and New Zealanders won immortal fame, even though their advance was destined to be in vain. The terrible Gallipoli peninsula, which forms the northern boundary of the Dardanelles, the narrow strait leading into the Sea of Marmora, offered great advantages to its defenders, the brave Turks. Its hills were guarded with hidden batteries. Barbed wire was placed under the waves. This

entangled our troops as they landed, and gave the Turks the opportunity to shoot them down. Heedless of these difficulties, the Australians climbed so quickly up the cliff, that the Turks were cleared out of the first and second trenches with bayonets, almost without their being able to resist.

The shore of Gallipoli was held for months by the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps. In honour of their deeds, the district came to be called "Anzac." The rugged hill-side was burrowed into with trenches and dug-outs.

Meanwhile a larger force was to have cleared the peninsula from another point. French, English, Australian and New Zealand troops took part in these advances under the fire of shrapnel and machine guns.

At Suvla Bay a surprise landing was made. Australian, New Zealand and Indian troops advanced and captured Turkish positions.

In spite of these successes and the heroism of the soldiers, whom no obstacles daunted, the original plan could not be carried out. The main part of the Gallipoli peninsula remained in possession of the

Turks, and the Allied troops at last had to be withdrawn.

Whatever led to this failure of our plan, the conduct of the troops was splendid. The annals of war can seldom show records of such cheerful heroism in the face of determined enemies, who had all the advantages of entrenched positions in a difficult and mountainous country, where cover was almost always impossible.

The peoples of every part of the British Empire have moved with one heart and mind and purpose. They have united to overthrow an attack, such as history has never before seen, upon the rights of civilised peoples and the peace of the world.

CHAPTER XXI

DUTY TO THE EMPIRE

AT no time in the recent history of Britain will there have been such a chance for both boys and girls as there will be after the war. It will be left to those now growing up to remake Britain. You who are just about to leave school, must say to yourselves : "What are we to do to help

Britain?" In choosing a profession or trade, you must not consider only what work will be easy or profitable for yourselves; you must think also how far the choice you make will help your country. You who are younger, but are yet old enough to think, must regard your lessons as preparing you for your serious work for the British Empire. All of us must be united in a new spirit of service.

None must suppose that patriotism is needed only in time of war, and by soldiers. The greatness of a country depends on the greatness of spirit with which every kind of duty is undertaken by its citizens. The home-maker is as essential as the defender of homes.

In previous chapters we have told you about the great men of the Empire. We were able to mention a few only of the statesmen, explorers, soldiers, artists, and men of science who are known to all the world.

We do not always reverence our great men. If we reverence them more, we shall try to imitate them. We must be strong, as they were strong, and face the dangers of the future in the spirit with which they faced the dangers of the past.

We must so act that our country is always a land worthy of our devotion and our love.

Patriotism demands self-sacrifice. When we look at the map of the British Empire we should not be filled with feelings of boastful pride. We should rather feel our responsibility: We must work to be good citizens of the Empire. Our country will be what we make it. We must see to it that it is a great country. Then will it be worth while for us to bring to it the greatest of sacrifices.

It is not the glory of great possessions that should move us with pride. It is what Britain has done for the world, not what it has taken from it, which makes her greatness. Small nations, like Belgium and Switzerland, can be as proud of what they have done for the world, as a large territory like the British Empire. It is not the numbers of a people, but the greatness of their deeds, that stand out in history. Belgium for ever will be great, because her spirit is the spirit of the hero.

All the citizens of the Empire must be united. The Great War has bound all of us together. The summons of danger and

the appeal of right have made us feel that we belong to one community. As one community we must secure the safety, well-being, and the glory of Great and Greater Britain.

Our work (and especially will it be the work of you boys and girls now growing up) will be to establish right. The conditions of life must be made better in every land. Right-doing must be our aim, not only in the councils of nations and the affairs of State, but in all human institutions, and in the daily lives of every one of us. That is what patriotism and love of our country is going to mean in the future to us. Patriotism is a duty not for this war time alone, but for all time. For true patriotism can never be satisfied by fighting foreign countries. It must fight against every evil within our Empire. When this is done, the lesson of patriotism will have been learnt, and righteousness established in the land.



